



# Incremental Learning of Object Detectors without Catastrophic Forgetting

Konstantin Shmelkov, Cordelia Schmid, Karteek Alahari

## ► To cite this version:

Konstantin Shmelkov, Cordelia Schmid, Karteek Alahari. Incremental Learning of Object Detectors without Catastrophic Forgetting. ICCV - IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision, Oct 2017, Venice, Italy. pp.3420-3429, 10.1109/ICCV.2017.368 . hal-01573623

**HAL Id: hal-01573623**

**<https://inria.hal.science/hal-01573623>**

Submitted on 10 Aug 2017

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

# Incremental Learning of Object Detectors without Catastrophic Forgetting

Konstantin Shmelkov

Cordelia Schmid

Karteek Alahari

Inria\*

## Abstract

Despite their success for object detection, convolutional neural networks are ill-equipped for incremental learning, i.e., adapting the original model trained on a set of classes to additionally detect objects of new classes, in the absence of the initial training data. They suffer from “catastrophic forgetting”—an abrupt degradation of performance on the original set of classes, when the training objective is adapted to the new classes. We present a method to address this issue, and learn object detectors incrementally, when neither the original training data nor annotations for the original classes in the new training set are available. The core of our proposed solution is a loss function to balance the interplay between predictions on the new classes and a new distillation loss which minimizes the discrepancy between responses for old classes from the original and the updated networks. This incremental learning can be performed multiple times, for a new set of classes in each step, with a moderate drop in performance compared to the baseline network trained on the ensemble of data. We present object detection results on the PASCAL VOC 2007 and COCO datasets, along with a detailed empirical analysis of the approach.

## 1. Introduction

Modern detection methods, such as [4,32], based on convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have achieved state-of-the-art results on benchmarks such as PASCAL VOC [10] and COCO [24]. This, however, comes with a high training time to learn the models. Furthermore, in an era where datasets are evolving regularly, with new classes and samples, it is necessary to develop incremental learning methods. A popular way to mitigate this is to use CNNs pre-trained on a certain dataset for a task, and adapt them to new datasets or tasks, rather than train the entire network from scratch.

Fine-tuning [15] is one approach to adapt a network to new data or tasks. Here, the output layer of the original network is adjusted, either by replacing it with classes corre-

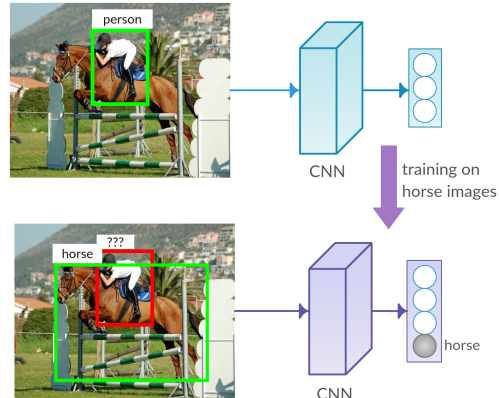


Figure 1. Catastrophic forgetting. An object detector network originally trained for three classes, including *person*, detects the rider (top). When the network is retrained with images of the new class *horse*, it detects the horse in the test image, but fails to localize the rider (bottom).

sponding to the new task, or by adding new classes to the existing ones. The weights in this layer are then randomly initialized, and all the parameters of the network are tuned with the objective for the new task. While this framework is very successful on the new classes, its performance on the old ones suffers dramatically, if the network is not trained on all the classes jointly. This issue, where a neural network forgets previously learned knowledge when adapted to a new task, is referred to as catastrophic interference or forgetting. It has been known for over a couple of decades in the context of feedforward fully connected networks [25,30], and needs to be addressed in the current state-of-the-art object detector networks, if we want to do incremental learning.

Consider the example in Figure 1. It illustrates catastrophic forgetting when incrementally adding a class, *horse* in this object detection example. The first CNN (top) is trained on three classes, including *person*, and localizes the rider in the image. The second CNN (bottom) is an incrementally trained version of the first one for the category *horse*. In other words, the original network is adapted with images from only this new class. This adapted network localizes the horse in the image, but fails to detect the rider, which it was capable of originally, and despite the fact that the *person* class was not updated. In this paper, we present a method to alleviate this issue.

\*Univ. Grenoble Alpes, Inria, CNRS, Grenoble INP, LJK, 38000 Grenoble, France.

Using only the training samples for the new classes, we propose a method for not only adapting the old network to the new classes, but also ensuring performance on the old classes does not degrade. The core of our approach is a loss function balancing the interplay between predictions on the new classes, i.e., cross-entropy loss, and a new distillation loss which minimizes the discrepancy between responses for old classes from the original and the new networks. The overall approach is illustrated in Figure 2.

We use a frozen copy of the original detection network to compute the distillation loss. This loss is related to the concept of “knowledge distillation” proposed in [19], but our application of it is significantly different from this previous work, as discussed in Section 3.2. We specifically target the problem of object detection, which has the additional challenge of localizing objects with bounding boxes, unlike other attempts [23,31] limited to the image classification task. We demonstrate experimental results on the PASCAL VOC and COCO datasets using Fast R-CNN [14] as the network. Our results show that we can add new classes incrementally to an existing network without forgetting the original classes, and with no access to the original training data. We also evaluate variants of our method empirically, and show the influence of distillation and the loss function. Note that our framework is general and can be applied to any other CNN-based object detectors where proposals are computed externally, or static sliding windows are used.

## 2. Related work

The problem of incremental learning has a long history in machine learning and artificial intelligence [6,29,36,37]. Some of the more recent work, e.g., [8,9], focuses on continuously updating the training set with data acquired from the Internet. They are: (i) restricted to learning with a fixed data representation [9], or (ii) keep all the collected data to retrain the model [8]. Other work partially addresses these issues by learning classifiers without access to the ensemble of data [26,33], but uses a fixed image representation. Unlike these methods, our approach is aimed at learning the representation and classifiers jointly, without storing all the training examples. To this end, we use neural networks to model the task in an end-to-end fashion.

Our work is also topically related to transfer learning and domain adaptation methods. Transfer learning uses knowledge acquired from one task to help learn another. Domain adaptation transfers the knowledge acquired for a task from a data distribution to other (but related) data. These paradigms, and in particular fine-tuning, a special case of transfer learning, are very popular in computer vision. CNNs learned for image classification [21] are often used to train other vision tasks such as object detection [28,40] and semantic segmentation [7].

An alternative to transfer knowledge from one net-

work to another is distillation [5,19]. This was originally proposed to transfer knowledge between different neural networks—from a large network to a smaller one for efficient deployment. The method in [19] encouraged the large (old) and the small (new) networks to produce similar responses. It has found several applications in domain adaptation and model compression [17,34,39]. Overall, transfer learning and domain adaptation methods require at least unlabeled data for both the tasks or domains, and in its absence, the new network quickly forgets all the knowledge acquired in the source domain [12,16,25,30]. In contrast, our approach addresses the challenging case where no training data is available for the original task (i.e., detecting objects belonging to the original classes), by building on the concept of knowledge distillation [19].

This phenomenon of forgetting is believed to be caused by two factors [11,22]. First, the internal representations in hidden layers are often overlapping, and a small change in a single neuron can affect multiple representations at the same time [11]. Second, all the parameters in feedforward networks are involved in computations for every data point, and a backpropagation update affects all of them in each training step [22]. The problem of addressing these issues in neural networks has its origin in classical connectionist networks several years ago [2,11–13,25], but needs to be adapted to today’s large deep neural network architectures for vision tasks [23,31].

Li and Hoiem [23] use knowledge distillation for one of the classical vision tasks, image classification, formulated in a deep learning framework. However, their evaluation is limited to the case where the old network is trained on a dataset, while the new network is trained on a different one, e.g., Places365 for the old and PASCAL VOC for the new, ImageNet for the old and PASCAL VOC for the new, etc. While this is interesting, it is a simpler task, because: (i) different datasets often contain dissimilar classes, (ii) there is little confusion between datasets—it is in fact possible to identify a dataset simply from an image [38].

Our method is significantly different from [23] in two ways. First, we deal with the more difficult problem of learning incrementally on the same dataset, i.e., the addition of classes to the network. As shown in [31], [23] fails in a similar setting of learning image classifiers incrementally. Second, we address the object detection task, where it is very common for the old and the new classes to co-occur, unlike the classification task.

Very recently, Rebuffi *et al.* [31] address some of the drawbacks in [23] with their incremental learning approach for image classification. They also use knowledge distillation, but decouple the classifier and the representation learning. Additionally, they rely on a subset of the original training data to preserve the performance on the old classes. In comparison, our approach is an end-to-end learning frame-

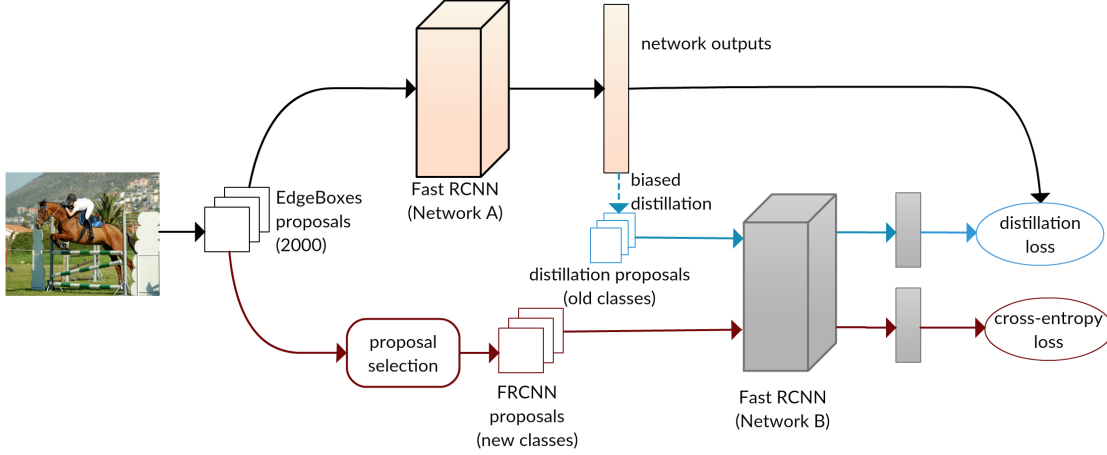


Figure 2. Overview of our framework for learning object detectors incrementally. It is composed of a frozen copy of the detector (Network A) and the detector (Network B) adapted for the new class(es). See text for details.

work, where the representation and the classifier are learned jointly, and we do not use any of the original training samples to avoid catastrophic forgetting. Alternatives to distillation are: growing the capacity of the network with new layers [35], applying strong per-parameter regularization selectively [20]. The downside to these methods is the rapid increase in the number of new parameters to be learned [35], and their limited evaluation on the easier task of image classification [20].

In summary, none of the previous work addresses the problem of learning classifiers for object detection incrementally, without using previously seen training samples.

### 3. Incremental learning of new classes

Our overall approach for incremental learning of a CNN model for object detection is illustrated in Figure 2. It contains a frozen copy of the original detector (denoted by Network A in the figure), which is used to: (i) select proposals corresponding to the old classes, i.e., distillation proposals, and (ii) compute the distillation loss. Network B in the figure is the adapted network for the new classes. It is obtained by increasing the number of outputs in the last layer of the original network, such that the new output layer includes the old as well as the new classes.

In order to avoid catastrophic forgetting, we constrain the learning process of the adapted network. We achieve this by incorporating a distillation loss, to preserve the performance on the old classes, as an additional term in the standard cross-entropy loss function (see §3.2). Specifically, we evaluate each new training sample on the frozen copy (Network A) to choose a diverse set of proposals (distillation proposals in Figure 2), and record their responses. With these responses in hand, we compute a distillation loss which measures the discrepancy between the two networks for the distillation proposals. This loss is added to the cross-entropy loss on the new classes to make up the loss function for training the adapted detection network. As we show in

the experimental evaluation, the distillation loss as well as the strategy to select the distillation proposals are critical in preserving the performance on the old classes (see §4).

In the remainder of this section, we provide details of the object detector network (§3.1), the loss functions and the learning algorithm (§3.2), and strategies to sample the object proposals (§3.3).

#### 3.1. Object detection network

We use a variant of a popular framework for object detection—Fast R-CNN [14], which is a proposal-based detection method built with pre-computed object proposals, e.g., [3, 41]. We chose this instead of the more recent Faster R-CNN [32], which integrates the computation of category-specific proposals into the network, because we need proposals agnostic to object categories, such as EdgeBoxes [41], MCG [3]. We use EdgeBoxes [41] proposals for PASCAL VOC 2007 and MCG [3] for COCO. This allows us to focus on the problem of learning the representation and the classifier, given a pre-computed set of generic object proposals.

In our variant of Fast R-CNN, we replaced the VGG-16 trunk with a deeper ResNet-50 [18] component, which is faster and more accurate than VGG-16. We follow the suggestions in [18] to combine Fast R-CNN and ResNet architectures. The network processes the whole image through a sequence of residual blocks. Before the last strided convolution layer we insert a RoI pooling layer, which performs maxpooling over regions of varied sizes, i.e., proposals, into a  $7 \times 7$  feature map. Then we add the remaining residual blocks, a layer for average pooling over spatial dimensions, and two fully connected layers: a softmax layer for classification (PASCAL or COCO classes, for example, along with the background class) and a regression layer for bounding box refinement, with independent corrections for each class.

The input to the network is an image and about 2000 pre-computed object proposals represented as bounding boxes.

During inference, the high-scoring proposals are refined according to bounding box regression. Then, a per-category non-maxima suppression (NMS) is performed to get the final detection results. The loss function to train the Fast R-CNN detector, corresponding to a RoI, is given by:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{rcnn}}(\mathbf{p}, k^*, t, t^*) = -\log \mathbf{p}_{k^*} + [k^* \geq 1]R(t - t^*), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbf{p}$  is the set of responses of the network for all the classes (i.e., softmax output),  $k^*$  is a groundtruth class,  $t$  is an output of bounding box refinement layer, and  $t^*$  is the ground truth bounding box proposal. The first part of the loss denotes log-loss over classes, and the second part is localization loss. For more implementation details about Fast R-CNN, refer to the original paper [14].

### 3.2. Dual-network learning

First, we train a Fast R-CNN to detect the original set of classes  $C_A$ . We refer to this network as  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$ . The goal now is to add a new set of classes  $C_B$  to this. We make two copies of  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$ : one that is frozen to recognize classes  $C_A$  through distillation loss, and the second  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  that is extended to detect the new classes  $C_B$ , which were not present or at least not annotated in the source images. The extension is done only in the last fully connected layers, i.e., classification and bounding box regression. We create sibling (i.e., fully-connected) layers [15] for new classes only and concatenate their outputs with the original ones. The new layers are initialized randomly in the same way as the corresponding layers in Fast R-CNN. Our goal is to train  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  to recognize classes  $C_A \cup C_B$  using only new data and annotations for  $C_B$ .

The distillation loss represents the idea of “keeping all the answers of the network the same or as close as possible”. If we train  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  without distillation, average precision on the old classes will degrade quickly, after a few hundred SGD iterations. This is a manifestation of catastrophic forgetting. We illustrate this in Sections 4.3 and 4.4. We compute the distillation loss by applying the frozen copy of  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  to any new image. Even if no object is detected by  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$ , the unnormalized logits (softmax input) carry enough information to “distill” the knowledge of the old classes from  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  to  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$ . This process is illustrated in Figure 2.

For each image we randomly sample 64 RoIs out of 128 with the smallest background score. The logits computed for these RoIs by  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  serve as targets for the old classes in the  $L_2$  distillation loss shown below. The logits for the new classes  $C_B$  are not considered in this loss. We subtract the mean over the class dimension from these unnormalized logits ( $y$ ) of each RoI to obtain the corresponding centered logits  $\bar{y}$  used in the distillation loss. Bounding box regression outputs  $t_A$  (of the same set of proposals used for computing the logit loss) also constrain the loss of the network  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$ . We chose to use  $L_2$  loss instead of a cross-entropy loss for regression outputs because it demonstrates

more stable training and performs better (see §4.4). The distillation loss combining the logits and regression outputs is written as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}}(y_A, t_A, y_B, t_B) = \frac{1}{N|C_A|} \sum \left[ (\bar{y}_A - \bar{y}_B)^2 + (t_A - t_B)^2 \right], \quad (2)$$

where  $N$  is the number of RoIs sampled for distillation (i.e., 64 in this case),  $|C_A|$  is the number of old classes, and the sum is over all the RoIs for the old classes. We distill logits without any smoothing, unlike [19], because most of the proposals already produce a smooth distribution of scores. Moreover, in our case, both the old and the new networks are similar with almost the same parameters (in the beginning), and so smoothing the logits distribution is not necessary to stabilize the learning.

The values of the bounding box regression are also distilled because we update all the layers, and any update of the convolutional layers will affect them indirectly. As box refinements are important to detect objects accurately, their values should be conserved as well. This is an easier task than keeping the classification scores because bounding box refinements for each class are independent, and are not linked by the softmax.

The overall loss  $\mathcal{L}$  to train the model incrementally is a weighted sum of the distillation loss (2), and the standard Fast R-CNN loss (1) that is applied only to new classes  $C_B$ , where groundtruth bounding box annotation is available. In essence,

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{rcnn}} + \lambda \mathcal{L}_{\text{dist}}, \quad (3)$$

where the hyperparameter  $\lambda$  balances the two losses. We set  $\lambda$  to 1 in all the experiments with cross-validation (see §4.4).

The interplay between the two networks  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  and  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  provides the necessary supervision that prevents the catastrophic forgetting in the absence of original training data used by  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$ . After the training of  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  is completed, we can add more classes by freezing the newly trained network and using it for distillation. We can thus add new classes sequentially. Since  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  is structurally identical to  $\mathbf{A}(C_A \cup C_B)$ , the extension can be repeated to add more classes.

### 3.3. Sampling strategy

As mentioned before, we choose 64 proposals out of 128 with the lowest background score, thus biasing the distillation to non-background proposals. We noticed that proposals recognized as confident background do not provide strong learning cues to conserve the original classes. One possibility is using an *unbiased distillation* that randomly samples 64 proposals out of the whole set of 2000 proposals. However, when doing so, the detection performance on old classes is noticeably worse because most of the distillation proposals are now background, and carry no strong



method	old	new	all
<b>A</b> (1-19)	68.4	-	-
+ <b>B</b> (20) w/o distillation	25.0	52.1	26.4
+ <b>B</b> (20) w frozen trunk	53.5	43.1	52.9
+ <b>B</b> (20) w all layers frozen	69.1	41.6	66.6
+ <b>B</b> (20) w frozen trunk and distill.	68.7	43.2	67.4
+ <b>B</b> (20) w distillation	68.3	58.3	67.8
+ <b>B</b> (20) w cross-entropy distill.	68.1	52.0	67.3
+ <b>B</b> (20) w/o bbox distillation	68.5	62.7	68.3
<b>A</b> (1-20)	69.6	73.9	69.8

Table 1. **VOC 2007 test** average precision (%). Experiments demonstrating the addition of “tvmonitor” class to a pretrained network under various setups. Classes 1-19 are the old classes, and “tvmonitor” (class 20) is the new one.

signal about the object categories. Therefore, it is advantageous to select non-background proposals. We demonstrate this empirically in Section 4.5.

## 4. Experiments

### 4.1. Datasets and evaluation

We evaluate our method on the PASCAL VOC 2007 detection benchmark and the Microsoft COCO challenge dataset. VOC 2007 consists of 5K images in the trainval split and 5K images in the test split for 20 object classes. COCO on the other hand has 80K images in the training set and 40K images in the validation set for 80 object classes (which includes all the classes from VOC). We use the standard mean average precision (mAP) at 0.5 IoU threshold as the evaluation metric. We also report mAP weighted across different IoU from 0.5 to 0.95 on COCO, as recommended in the COCO challenge guidelines. Evaluation of the VOC 2007 experiments is done on the test split, while for COCO, we use the first 5000 images from the validation set.

### 4.2. Implementation details

We use SGD with Nesterov momentum [27] to train the network in all the experiments. We set the learning rate to 0.001, decay to 0.0001 after 30K iterations, and momentum to 0.9. In the second stage of training, i.e., learning the extended network with new classes, we used a learning rate of 0.0001. The  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  network is trained for 40K iterations on PASCAL VOC 2007 and for 400K iterations on COCO. The  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  network is trained for 3K-5K iterations when only one class is added, and for the same number of iterations as  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  when many classes are added at once. Following Fast R-CNN [14], we regularize with weight decay of 0.00005 and take batches of two images each. All the layers of  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  and  $\mathbf{B}(C_B)$  networks are finetuned unless stated otherwise.

The integration of ResNet into Fast R-CNN (see §3.1) is done by adding a RoI pooling layer before the conv5\_1 layer, and replacing the final classification layer by two sibling fully connected layers. The batch normalization layers

are frozen, and as in Fast R-CNN, no dropout is used. RoIs are considered as detections if they have a score more than 0.5 for any of the classes. We apply per-class NMS with an IoU threshold of 0.3. Training is image-centric, and a batch is composed of 64 proposals per image, with 16 of them having an IoU of at least 0.5 with a groundtruth object. All the proposals are filtered to have IoU less than 0.7, as in [41].

We use TensorFlow [1] to develop our incremental learning framework. Each experiment begins with choosing a subset of classes to form the set  $C_A$ . Then, a network is learned only on the subset of the training set composed of all the images containing at least one object from  $C_A$ . Annotations for other classes in these images are ignored. With the new classes chosen to form the set  $C_B$ , we learn the extended network as described in Section 3.2 with the subset of the training set containing at least one object from  $C_B$ . As in the previous case, annotations of all the other classes, including those of the original classes  $C_A$ , are ignored. For computational efficiency, we precomputed the responses of the frozen network  $\mathbf{A}(C_A)$  on the training data (as every image is typically used multiple times).

### 4.3. Addition of one class

In the first experiment we take 19 classes in alphabetical order from the VOC dataset as  $C_A$ , and the remaining one as the only new class  $C_B$ . We then train the  $\mathbf{A}(1-19)$  network on the VOC trainval subset containing any of the 19 classes, and the  $\mathbf{B}(20)$  network is trained on the trainval subset containing the new class. A summary of the evaluation of these networks on the VOC test set is shown in Table 1, with the full results in Table 6.

A baseline approach for addition of a new class is to add an output to the last layer and freeze the rest of the network. This freezing, where the weights of the network’s convolutional layers are fixed (“ $\mathbf{B}(20)$  w frozen trunk” in the tables), results in a lower performance on the new class as the previously learned representations have not been adapted for it. Furthermore, it does not prevent degradation of the performance on the old classes, where mAP drops by almost 15%. When we freeze all the layers, including the old output layer (“ $\mathbf{B}(20)$  w all layers frozen”), or apply distillation loss (“ $\mathbf{B}(20)$  w frozen trunk and distill.”), the performance on the old classes is maintained, but that on the new class is poor. This shows that finetuning of convolutional layers is necessary to learn the new classes.

When the network  $\mathbf{B}(20)$  is trained without the distillation loss (“ $\mathbf{B}(20)$  w/o distillation” in the tables), it can learn the 20th class, but the performance decreases significantly on the other (old) classes. As seen in Table 6, the AP on classes like “cat”, “person” drops by over 60%. The same training procedure with distillation loss largely alleviates this catastrophic forgetting. Without distillation, the new network has 25.0% mAP on the old classes compared

method	old	new	all
<b>A(1-10)</b>	65.8	-	-
<b>+B(11-20) w/o distillation</b>	12.8	64.5	38.7
<b>+B(11-20) w distillation</b>	63.2	63.1	63.1
<b>+B(11-20) w/o bbox distillation</b>	58.7	63.1	60.9
<b>+B(11-20) w EWC [20]</b>	31.6	61.0	46.3
<b>A(1-20)</b>	68.4	71.3	69.8

Table 2. **VOC 2007 test** average precision (%). Experiments demonstrating the addition of 10 classes, all at once, to a pretrained network. Classes 1-10 are the old classes, and 11-20 the new ones.

to 68.3% with distillation, and 69.6% mAP of baseline Fast R-CNN trained jointly on all classes (“A(1-20)”). With distillation the performance is similar to that of the old network **A(1-19)**, but is lower for certain classes, e.g., “bottle”. The 20th class “tvmonitor” does not get the full performance of the baseline (73.9%), with or without distillation, and is less than 60%. This is potentially due to the size of the training set. The **B(20)** network is trained only a few hundred images containing instances of this class. Thus, the “tvmonitor” classifier does not see the full diversity of negatives.

We also performed the “addition of one class” experiment with each of the VOC categories being the new class. The behavior for each class is very similar to the “tvmonitor” case described above. The mAP varies from 66.1% (for new class “sheep”) to 68.3% (“tvmonitor”) with mean 67.38% and standard deviation of 0.6%.

#### 4.4. Addition of multiple classes

In this scenario we train the network **A(1-10)** on the first 10 VOC classes (in alphabetical order) with the VOC training subset corresponding to these classes. In the second stage of training we used the remaining 10 classes as  $C_B$  and trained only on the images containing the new classes. Table 2 shows a summary of the evaluation of these networks on the VOC test set, with the full results in Table 7.

Training the network **B(11-20)** on the 10 new classes with distillation (for the old classes) achieves 63.1% mAP (“**B(11-20) w distillation**” in the tables) compared to 69.8% of the baseline network trained on all the 20 classes (“**A(1-20)**”). Just as in the previous experiment of adding one class, performance on the new classes is slightly worse than with the joint training of all the classes. For example, as seen in Table 7, the performance for “person” is 73.2% vs 79.1%, and 72.5% vs 76.8% for the “train” class. The mAP on new classes is 63.1% for the network with distillation versus 71.3% for the jointly trained model. However, without distillation, the network achieves only 12.8% mAP (“**+B(11-20) w/o distillation**”) on the old classes. Note that the method without bounding box distillation (“**+B(11-20) w/o bbox distillation**”) is inferior to our full method (“**+B(11-20) w distillation**”).

We also performed the 10-class experiment for different values of  $\lambda$  in (3), the hyperparameter controlling the rel-

method	old	new	all
<b>A(1-15)</b>	70.5	-	-
<b>+B(16-20) w distill.</b>	68.4	58.4	65.9
<b>+B(16)(17)...(20) w distill.</b>	66.0	51.6	62.4
<b>+B(16)(17)...(20) w unbiased distill.</b>	45.8	46.5	46.0
<b>+A(16)+...+A(20)</b>	70.5	37.8	62.4
<b>A(1-20)</b>	70.9	66.7	69.8

Table 3. **VOC 2007 test** average precision (%). Experiments demonstrating the addition of 5 classes, all at once, and incrementally to a pretrained network. Classes 1-15 are the old ones, and 16-20 the new classes.

method	mAP@.5	mAP@[.5, .95]
<b>A(1-40)+B(41-80)</b>	37.4	21.3
<b>A(1-80)</b>	38.1	22.6

Table 4. **COCO minival** (first 5000 validation images) average precision (%). We compare the model learned incrementally on half the classes with the baseline trained on all jointly.

ative importance of distillation and Fast R-CNN loss. Results shown in Figure 3 demonstrate that when the distillation is weak ( $\lambda = 0.1$ ) the new classes are easier to learn, but the old ones are more easily forgotten. When distillation is strong ( $\lambda = 10$ ), it destabilizes training and impedes learning the new classes. Setting  $\lambda$  to 1 is a good trade-off between learning new classes and preventing catastrophic forgetting.

We also compare our approach with elastic weight consolidation (EWC) [20], which is an alternative to distillation and applies per-parameter regularization selectively to alleviate catastrophic forgetting. We reimplemented EWC and verified that it produces results comparable to those reported in [20] on MNIST, and then adapted it to our object detection task. We do this by using the Fast R-CNN batches during the training phase (as done in Section 4.2), and by replacing log loss with the Fast R-CNN loss. Our approach outperforms EWC for this case, when we add 10 classes at once, as shown in Tables 2 and 7.

We evaluated the influence of the number of new classes in incremental learning. To this end, we learn a network for 15 classes first, and then train for the remaining 5 classes, all added at once on VOC. These results are summarized in Table 3, with the per-class results shown in Table 8. The network **B(16-20)** has better overall performance than **B(11-20)**: 65.9% mAP versus 63.1% mAP. As in the experiment with 10 classes, the performance is lower for a few classes, e.g., “table”, “horse”, for example, than the initial model **A(1-15)**. The performance on the new classes is lower than jointly trained baseline Fast R-CNN **A(1-20)**. Overall, mAP of **B(16-20)** is lower than baseline Fast R-CNN (65.9% versus 69.8%).

The evaluation on COCO, shown in Table 4, is done with the first 40 classes in the initial set, and the remaining 40 in the new second stage. The network **B(41-80)** trained with

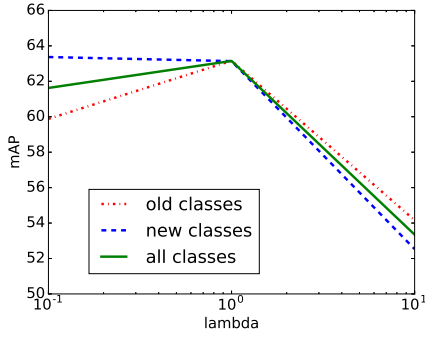


Figure 3. The influence of  $\lambda$ , in the loss function (3), on the mAP performance for the **B(11-20)** network trained with distillation.

the distillation loss obtains 37.4% mAP in the PASCAL-style metric and 21% mAP in the COCO-style metric. The baseline network trained on 80 classes is similar in performance with 38.1% and 22.6% mAP respectively. We observe that our proposed method overcomes catastrophic forgetting, just as in the case of VOC seen earlier.

We also studied if distillation depends on the distribution of images used in this loss. To this end, we used the model **A(1-10)** trained on VOC, and then performed the second stage learning in two settings: **B(11-20)** learned on the subset of VOC as before, and another model trained for the same set of classes, but using a subset of COCO. From Table 5 we see that indeed, distillation works better when background samples have exactly the same distribution in both stages of training. However, it is still very effective even when the dataset in the second stage is different from the one used in the first.

#### 4.5. Sequential addition of multiple classes

In order to evaluate incremental learning of classes added sequentially, we update the frozen copy of the network with the one learned with the new class, and then repeat the process with another new class. For example, we take a network learned for 15 classes of VOC, train it for the 16th on the subset containing only this class, and then use the 16-class network as the frozen copy to then learn the 17th class. This is then continued until the 20th class. We denote this incremental extension as **B(16)(17)(18)(19)(20)**.

Results of adding classes sequentially are shown in Tables 8 and 9. After adding the 5 classes we obtain 62.4% mAP (row 3 in Table 8), which is lower than 65.9% obtained by adding all the 5 classes at once (row 2). Table 9 shows intermediate evaluations after adding each class. We observe that the performance of the original classes remains stable at each step in most cases, but for a few classes, which is not recovered in the following steps. We empirically evaluate the importance of using biased non-background proposals (cf. §3.3). Here we add the 5 classes one by one, but use unbiased distillation (“**B(16)(17)(18)(19)(20)** w unbiased dis-

	+COCO-10cls	+VOC-10cls
mAP (old classes)	61.4	63.2
mAP (new classes)	48.2	63.1
mAP (all classes)	54.8	63.2

Table 5. **VOC 2007 test** average precision (%). The second stage of training, where 10 classes (11-20th) are added, is done on the subset of COCO images (+COCO-10cls), and is compared to the one trained on the VOC subset (+VOC-10cls).

till.” in Tables 3 and 8), i.e., randomly sampled proposals are used for distillation. This results in much worse overall performance (46% vs 62.4%) and some classes (“person”, “chair”) suffer from a significant performance drop of 10-20%. We also performed sequential addition experiment with 10 classes, and present the results in Table 10. Although the drop in mAP is more significant than for the previous experiment with 5 classes, it is far from catastrophic forgetting.

#### 4.6. Other alternatives

**Learning multiple networks.** Another solution for learning multiple classes is to train a new network for each class, and then combine their detections. This is an expensive strategy at test time, as each network has to be run independently, including the extraction of features. This may seem like a reasonable thing to do as evaluation of object detection is done independently for each class. However, learning is usually not independent. Although we can learn a decent detection network for 10 classes, it is much more difficult when learning single classes independently. To demonstrate this, we trained a network for 1-15 classes and then separate networks for each of the 16-20 classes. This results in 6 networks in total (row “+**A(16)+...+A(20)**” in Table 3), compared to incremental learning of 5 classes implemented with a single network (“+**B(16)(17)...(20)** w distill.”). The results confirm that new classes are difficult to learn in isolation.

**Varying distillation loss.** As noted in [19], knowledge distillation can also be expressed as a cross-entropy loss. We compared this with  $L_2$ -based loss on the one class extension experiment (“**B(20)** w cross-entropy distill.” in Tables 1 and 6). Cross-entropy distillation works as well as  $L_2$  distillation keeping old classes intact (67.3% vs 67.8%), but performs worse than  $L_2$  on the new class “tvmonitor” (52% vs 58.3%). We also observed that cross-entropy is more sensitive to the training schedule. According to [19], both formulations should be equivalent in the limit of a high smoothing factor for logits (cf. §3.2), but our choice of not smoothing leads to this different behavior.

**Bounding box regression distillation.** Addition of 10 classes (Table 2) without distilling bounding box regression values performs consistently worse than the full distillation loss. Overall **B(11-20)** without distilling bounding



method	aero	bike	bird	boat	bottle	bus	car	cat	chair	cow	table	dog	horse	mbike	persn	plant	sheep	sofa	train	tv	mAP
A(1-19)	69.9	79.4	69.5	55.7	45.6	78.4	78.9	79.8	44.8	76.2	63.8	78.0	80.8	77.6	70.2	40.9	67.8	64.5	77.5	-	68.4
+B(20) w/o distillation	35.9	36.1	26.4	16.5	9.1	26.4	36.2	18.2	9.1	51.5	9.1	26.6	50.0	26.2	9.1	9.1	43.7	9.1	28.0	52.1	26.4
+B(20) w frozen trunk	61.3	71.9	62.5	46.2	34.5	70.6	71.6	62.4	9.1	68.3	27.1	61.6	80.0	70.6	35.9	24.6	53.8	34.9	68.9	43.1	52.9
+B(20) w all layers frozen	68.8	78.4	70.2	51.8	52.8	76.1	78.7	78.8	50.1	74.5	65.5	76.9	80.2	76.3	69.8	40.4	62.0	63.7	75.5	41.6	66.6
+B(20) w frozen trunk and distill.	74.4	78.1	69.8	54.7	52.1	75.7	79.0	78.5	48.5	74.4	62.3	77.0	80.2	77.2	69.7	44.5	68.6	64.5	74.7	43.2	67.4
+B(20) w distillation	70.2	79.3	69.6	56.4	40.7	78.5	78.8	80.5	45.0	75.7	64.1	77.8	80.8	78.0	70.4	42.3	67.6	64.6	77.5	58.3	67.8
+B(20) w cross-entropy distill.	69.1	79.1	69.5	52.8	45.4	78.1	78.9	79.5	44.8	75.5	64.2	77.2	80.8	77.9	70.2	42.7	66.8	64.6	76.1	52.0	67.3
+B(20) w/o bbox distillation	69.4	79.3	69.5	57.4	45.4	78.4	79.1	80.5	45.7	76.3	64.8	77.2	80.8	77.5	70.1	42.3	67.5	64.4	76.7	62.7	68.3
A(1-20)	70.2	77.9	70.4	54.1	47.4	78.9	78.6	79.8	50.8	75.9	65.6	78.0	80.5	79.1	76.3	47.7	69.3	65.6	76.8	73.9	69.8

Table 6. VOC 2007 test per-class average precision (%) under different settings when the “tvmonitor” class is added.

method	aero	bike	bird	boat	bottle	bus	car	cat	chair	cow	table	dog	horse	mbike	persn	plant	sheep	sofa	train	tv	mAP
A(1-10)	69.9	76.7	68.9	54.9	48.7	72.9	78.8	75.5	48.8	62.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	65.8
+B(11-20) w/o distillation	25.5	9.1	23.5	17.3	9.1	9.1	9.1	16.2	0.0	9.1	61.5	67.7	76.0	72.2	68.9	34.8	63.6	62.7	72.5	65.2	38.7
+B(11-20) w distillation	69.9	70.4	69.4	54.3	48.0	68.7	78.9	68.4	45.5	58.1	59.7	72.7	73.5	73.2	66.3	29.5	63.4	61.6	69.3	62.2	63.1
+B(11-20) w/o bbox distillation	68.8	69.8	60.6	46.4	46.7	65.9	71.3	66.3	43.6	47.3	58.5	70.6	73.4	70.6	66.3	33.6	63.1	62.1	69.4	63.1	60.9
+B(11-20) w EWC [20]	54.5	18.2	52.8	20.8	25.8	53.2	45.0	27.3	9.1	9.1	49.6	61.2	76.1	73.6	67.1	35.8	57.8	55.2	67.9	65.3	46.3
A(1-20)	70.2	77.9	70.4	54.1	47.4	78.9	78.6	79.8	50.8	75.9	65.6	78.0	80.5	79.1	76.3	47.7	69.3	65.6	76.8	73.9	69.8

Table 7. VOC 2007 test per-class average precision (%) under different settings when 10 classes are added at once.

method	aero	bike	bird	boat	bottle	bus	car	cat	chair	cow	table	dog	horse	mbike	persn	plant	sheep	sofa	train	tv	mAP
A(1-15)	70.8	79.1	69.8	59.2	53.3	76.9	79.3	79.1	47.8	70.0	62.0	76.6	80.4	77.5	76.2	-	-	-	-	-	70.5
+B(16-20) w distill.	70.5	79.2	68.8	59.1	53.2	75.4	79.4	78.8	46.6	59.4	59.0	75.8	71.8	78.6	69.6	33.7	61.5	63.1	71.7	62.2	65.9
+B(16)(17)(18)(19)(20) w distill.	70.0	78.1	61.0	50.9	46.3	76.0	78.8	77.2	46.1	66.6	58.9	67.7	71.6	71.4	69.6	25.6	57.1	46.5	70.7	58.2	62.4
+B(16)(17)(18)(19)(20) w unbiased distill.	62.2	71.2	52.3	43.8	24.9	60.7	62.9	53.4	9.1	34.9	42.5	34.8	54.3	70.9	9.1	18.7	53.2	48.9	58.2	53.5	46.0
A(1-20)	70.2	77.9	70.4	54.1	47.4	78.9	78.6	79.8	50.8	75.9	65.6	78.0	80.5	79.1	76.3	47.7	69.3	65.6	76.8	73.9	69.8

Table 8. VOC 2007 test per-class average precision (%) under different settings when 5 classes are added at once or sequentially.

method	aero	bike	bird	boat	bottle	bus	car	cat	chair	cow	table	dog	horse	mbike	persn	plant	sheep	sofa	train	tv	mAP
A(1-15)	70.8	79.1	69.8	59.2	53.3	76.9	79.3	79.1	47.8	70.0	62.0	76.6	80.4	77.5	76.2	-	-	-	-	-	70.5
+B(16)	70.5	78.3	69.6	60.4	52.4	76.8	79.4	79.2	47.1	70.2	56.7	77.0	80.3	78.1	70.0	26.3	-	-	-	-	67.0
+B(16)(17)	70.3	78.9	67.7	59.2	47.0	76.3	79.3	77.7	48.0	58.8	60.2	67.4	71.6	78.6	70.2	27.9	46.8	-	-	-	63.9
+B(16)(17)(18)	69.8	78.2	67.0	50.4	46.9	76.5	78.6	78.0	46.4	58.6	58.6	67.5	71.8	78.5	69.9	26.1	56.2	45.3	-	-	62.5
+B(16)(17)(18)(19)	70.4	78.8	67.3	49.8	46.4	75.6	78.4	78.0	46.0	59.5	59.2	67.2	71.8	71.3	69.8	25.9	56.1	48.2	65.0	-	62.4
+B(16)(17)(18)(19)(20)	70.0	78.1	61.0	50.9	46.3	76.0	78.8	77.2	46.1	66.6	58.9	67.7	71.6	71.4	69.6	25.6	57.1	46.5	70.7	58.2	62.4
A(1-20)	70.2	77.9	70.4	54.1	47.4	78.9	78.6	79.8	50.8	75.9	65.6	78.0	80.5	79.1	76.3	47.7	69.3	65.6	76.8	73.9	69.8

Table 9. VOC 2007 test per-class average precision (%) when 5 classes are added sequentially.

method	A(1-10)	+table	+dog	+horse	+mbike	+persn	+plant	+sheep	+sofa	+train	+tv
mAP	67.1	65.1	62.5	59.9	59.8	59.2	57.3	49.1	49.8	48.7	49.0

Table 10. VOC 2007 test average precision (%) when adding 10 classes sequentially. Unlike other tables each column here shows the mAP of a network trained on all the previous classes and the new class. For example, the mAP shown for “+dog” is the result of the network trained on the first ten classes, “table”, and the new class “dog”.

box regression gets 60.9% vs 63.1% with the full distillation. However, on a few new classes the performance can be higher than with the full distillation (Table 7). This is also the case for B(20) without bounding box distillation (Table 6) that has better performance on “tvmonitor” (62.7% vs 58.3%). This is not the case when other categories are chosen as the new class. Indeed, bounding box distillation shows an improvement of 2% for the “sheep” class.

## 5. Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented an approach for incremental learning of object detectors for new classes, without access to the training data corresponding to the old classes. We address the problem of catastrophic forgetting in this context, with a loss function that optimizes the performance

on the new classes, in addition to preserving the performance on the old classes. Our extensive experimental analysis demonstrates that our approach performs well, even in the extreme case of adding new classes one by one. Part of future work is adapting our method to learned proposals, e.g., from RPN for Faster R-CNN [32], by reformulating RPN as a single class detector that works on sliding window proposals. This requires adding another term for RPN-based knowledge distillation in the loss function.

**Acknowledgments.** This work was supported in part by the ERC advanced grant ALLEGRO, a Google research award, and gifts from Facebook and Intel. We gratefully acknowledge NVIDIA’s support with the donation of GPUs used for this work.

## References

- [1] M. Abadi, A. Agarwal, P. Barham, E. Brevdo, Z. Chen, C. Citro, G. S. Corrado, A. Davis, J. Dean, M. Devin, et al. Tensorflow: Large-scale machine learning on heterogeneous systems. *tensorflow.org*, 2015.
- [2] B. Ans, S. Rousset, R. M. French, and S. Musca. Self-refreshing memory in artificial neural networks: Learning temporal sequences without catastrophic forgetting. *Connection Science*, 16(2):71–99, 2004.
- [3] P. Arbeláez, J. Pont-Tuset, J. T. Barron, F. Marques, and J. Malik. Multiscale combinatorial grouping. In *CVPR*, 2014.
- [4] S. Bell, C. L. Zitnick, K. Bala, and R. Girshick. Inside-outside net: Detecting objects in context with skip pooling and recurrent neural networks. In *CVPR*, 2016.
- [5] C. Buciluă, R. Caruana, and A. Niculescu-Mizil. Model compression. In *KDD*, 2006.
- [6] G. Cauwenberghs and T. Poggio. Incremental and decremental support vector machine learning. In *NIPS*, 2000.
- [7] L.-C. Chen, G. Papandreou, I. Kokkinos, K. Murphy, and A. L. Yuille. Semantic image segmentation with deep convolutional nets and fully connected CRFs. In *ICLR*, 2015.
- [8] X. Chen, A. Shrivastava, and A. Gupta. NEIL: Extracting visual knowledge from web data. In *ICCV*, 2013.
- [9] S. Divvala, A. Farhadi, and C. Guestrin. Learning everything about anything: Webly-supervised visual concept learning. In *CVPR*, 2014.
- [10] M. Everingham, L. Van Gool, C. K. Williams, J. Winn, and A. Zisserman. The PASCAL visual object classes (VOC) challenge. *IJCV*, 88(2):303–338, 2010.
- [11] R. M. French. Dynamically constraining connectionist networks to produce distributed, orthogonal representations to reduce catastrophic interference. *Cognitive Science Society Conference*, 1994.
- [12] R. M. French. Catastrophic forgetting in connectionist networks. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, 3(4):128–135, 1999.
- [13] R. M. French, B. Ans, and S. Rousset. Pseudopatterns and dual-network memory models: Advantages and shortcomings. In *Connectionist models of learning, development and evolution*, pages 13–22. 2001.
- [14] R. Girshick. Fast R-CNN. In *ICCV*, 2015.
- [15] R. Girshick, J. Donahue, T. Darrell, and J. Malik. Rich feature hierarchies for accurate object detection and semantic segmentation. In *CVPR*, 2014.
- [16] I. J. Goodfellow, M. Mirza, D. Xiao, A. Courville, and Y. Bengio. An empirical investigation of catastrophic forgetting in gradient-based neural networks. In *ICLR*, 2014.
- [17] S. Gupta, J. Hoffman, and J. Malik. Cross modal distillation for supervision transfer. In *CVPR*, 2016.
- [18] K. He, X. Zhang, S. Ren, and J. Sun. Deep residual learning for image recognition. In *CVPR*, 2016.
- [19] G. Hinton, O. Vinyals, and J. Dean. Distilling the knowledge in a neural network. In *NIPS*, 2014.
- [20] J. Kirkpatrick, R. Pascanu, N. Rabinowitz, J. Veness, G. Desjardins, A. A. Rusu, K. Milan, J. Quan, T. Ramalho, A. Grabska-Barwinska, D. Hassabis, C. Clopath, D. Kumaran, and R. Hadsell. Overcoming catastrophic forgetting in neural networks. *PNAS*, 2017.
- [21] A. Krizhevsky, I. Sutskever, and G. E. Hinton. ImageNet classification with deep convolutional neural networks. In *NIPS*, 2012.
- [22] Y. LeCun, B. Boser, J. S. Denker, D. Henderson, R. E. Howard, W. Hubbard, and L. D. Jackel. Backpropagation applied to handwritten zip code recognition. *Neural computation*, 1(4):541–551, 1989.
- [23] Z. Li and D. Hoiem. Learning without forgetting. In *ECCV*, 2016.
- [24] T.-Y. Lin, M. Maire, S. Belongie, J. Hays, P. Perona, D. Ramanan, P. Dollár, and C. L. Zitnick. Microsoft COCO: Common objects in context. In *ECCV*, 2014.
- [25] M. McCloskey and N. J. Cohen. Catastrophic interference in connectionist networks: The sequential learning problem. *Psychology of learning and motivation*, 24:109–165, 1989.
- [26] T. Mensink, J. Verbeek, F. Perronnin, and G. Csurka. Distance-based image classification: Generalizing to new classes at near-zero cost. *PAMI*, 35(11):2624–2637, 2013.
- [27] Y. Nesterov. A method of solving a convex programming problem with convergence rate  $O(1/k^2)$ . In *Soviet Mathematics Doklady*, volume 27, pages 372–376, 1983.
- [28] M. Oquab, L. Bottou, I. Laptev, and J. Sivic. Learning and transferring mid-level image representations using convolutional neural networks. In *CVPR*, 2014.
- [29] R. Polikar, L. Upda, S. S. Upda, and V. Honavar. Learn++: An incremental learning algorithm for supervised neural networks. *IEEE Trans. Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, Part C*, 31(4):497–508, 2001.
- [30] R. Ratcliff. Connectionist models of recognition memory: constraints imposed by learning and forgetting functions. *Psychological review*, 97(2):285, 1990.
- [31] S.-A. Rebuffi, A. Kolesnikov, and C. H. Lampert. iCaRL: Incremental classifier and representation learning. In *CVPR*, 2017.
- [32] S. Ren, K. He, R. Girshick, and J. Sun. Faster R-CNN: Towards real-time object detection with region proposal networks. In *NIPS*, 2015.
- [33] M. Ristin, M. Guillaumin, J. Gall, and L. V. Gool. Incremental learning of NCM forests for large-scale image classification. In *CVPR*, 2014.
- [34] A. A. Rusu, S. G. Colmenarejo, C. Gulcehre, G. Desjardins, J. Kirkpatrick, R. Pascanu, V. Mnih, K. Kavukcuoglu, and R. Hadsell. Policy distillation. In *ICLR*, 2016.
- [35] A. A. Rusu, N. C. Rabinowitz, G. Desjardins, H. Soyer, J. Kirkpatrick, K. Kavukcuoglu, R. Pascanu, and R. Hadsell. Progressive neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1606.04671*, 2016.
- [36] J. C. Schlimmer and D. H. Fisher. A case study of incremental concept induction. In *AAAI*, 1986.
- [37] S. Thrun. Is learning the  $n$ -th thing any easier than learning the first? In *NIPS*, 1996.
- [38] A. Torralba and A. A. Efros. Unbiased look at dataset bias. In *CVPR*, 2011.

- [39] E. Tzeng, J. Hoffman, T. Darrell, and K. Saenko. Simultaneous deep transfer across domains and tasks. In *ICCV*, 2015.
- [40] J. Yosinski, J. Clune, Y. Bengio, and H. Lipson. How transferable are features in deep neural networks? In *NIPS*, 2014.
- [41] C. L. Zitnick and P. Dollár. Edge boxes: Locating object proposals from edges. In *ECCV*, 2014.